

The effect of varying primary emissions on the concentrations of inorganic aerosols predicted by the enhanced UK Photochemical Trajectory Model

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4 **The Effect of Varying Primary Emissions on**
5 **the Concentrations of Inorganic Aerosols**
6 **Predicted by the Enhanced UK Photochemical**
7 **Trajectory Model**
8

9
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24 ABSTRACT

25 An enhanced Photochemical Trajectory Model (PTM) has been used to simulate concentrations of
26 secondary inorganic aerosol (for the purposes of this work, sulphate, nitrate, chloride and
27 ammonium) in PM₁₀ over a two-month period at a rural site in central southern England (Harwell).
28 Judged against a base year of 2007, emissions of precursor gases, SO₂, NO_x and NH₃ have been
29 varied over plausible ranges, occurring across the UK only, mainland Europe only, or the whole of
30 Europe. The model is able to reproduce observed non-linearities and shows that abatement is less
31 than proportional in all cases. Additionally, abatement of sulphur dioxide leads to increased nitrate
32 concentrations. The combination of a weak response of nitrate to reductions in NO_x emissions, and
33 the effect of sulphur dioxide reductions in increasing nitrate is consistent with the very small recent
34 observed trends in nitrate concentrations over the UK. A scenario for 2020 in which emissions of
35 SO₂, NO_x and NH₃ fall to 64%, 75% and 96% respectively of their 2007 baseline levels across the
36 whole of Europe shows a reduction of 2 µg m⁻³ in secondary inorganic aerosol which is 13% below
37 the baseline case for a two month period in 2007, due mostly to a fall in sulphate and ammonium.
38 As this was a relatively high pollution period, it is estimated that over a full year, the reduction is
39 more likely to be around 1 µg m⁻³.

40

41 Keywords: Secondary inorganic aerosol, sulphate, nitrate, trajectory model

42 INTRODUCTION

43 The European Union Limit Values for PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} and the exposure reduction target for PM_{2.5}
44 (Official Journal, 2008; Harrison et al., 2012a), together with the imperative to protect public
45 health are strong drivers to reduce airborne concentrations of PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5}. As industrial and
46 automotive sources of primary pollutants have steadily reduced in recent years, so the relative
47 importance of secondary components of airborne particulate matter has become more pronounced.
48 Chemical analysis of PM_{2.5} samples collected in Birmingham in 2004-2006 showed that secondary
49 ammonium sulphate and ammonium nitrate contributed 24.0% and 21.2% respectively of measured
50 PM_{2.5} mass (Yin and Harrison, 2008). Additionally, there was an appreciable contribution of
51 secondary organic aerosol (19.4% derived from data in Harrison and Yin (2008)). Yin and Harrison
52 (2008) also showed that on high pollution days when PM₁₀ exceeds the daily limit value of 50 µg
53 m⁻³, ammonium nitrate makes a disproportionately large contribution to the overall particle mass
54 (average 45.8%). Similar influences of secondary components on PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} are operative
55 also in London (Harrison et al., 2012b).

56
57 In analysing exceedences of the 24 hour PM₁₀ limit value in the southern United Kingdom, Charron
58 et al. (2007) attributed a high importance to regional pollution events associated particularly with
59 elevated concentrations of secondary inorganic aerosol. It is well recognised that a substantial
60 proportion of such particulate matter arises from precursor emissions in the European mainland
61 (Harrison et al., 2012a) and consequently it is important to understand the relative contributions
62 which abatement of UK and continental European precursor emissions respectively can make to
63 reducing airborne concentrations of secondary inorganic particles. An additional factor to take into
64 account is that a careful analysis of the relationship of airborne concentrations of sulphate to those
65 of sulphur dioxide suggests significant non-linearities (Jones and Harrison, 2011), i.e. a reduction in
66 sulphur dioxide emissions is associated with a less than proportionate reduction in sulphate.

67

68 In order to understand the impacts of abatement policies, it is necessary to predict the influences of
69 reductions of precursor emissions upon future secondary pollutant concentrations. This can be done
70 most effectively through use of a chemistry-transport model, but the applicability of many such
71 models is limited by their large computational expense whose implication is that only a small
72 number of scenarios can be run, and consequently the full range of possible future emissions cannot
73 readily be studied. A number of models have been used to predict concentrations of particulate
74 matter components within the European atmosphere. These include Eulerian models such as
75 LOTOS-EUROS (Schaap et al., 2008), CHIMERE (Bessagnet et al., 2009), REM-CALGRID
76 model (RCG) (Beekmann et al., 2007), and the Unified EMEP model (Simpson et al. 2011). The
77 unified EMEP model has been used for policy development in Europe (Aas et al., 2007) and to
78 address regional scale impacts of NO_x and SO₂ emission reductions on PM mass concentrations.
79 More recently, Megaritis et al. (2012) have used the PMCAM_x-2008 model to evaluate the impact
80 of 50% precursor emissions reductions upon PM_{2.5} concentrations in Europe.

81

82 The CityDelta project compared the ability of several models to predict the impact of emissions
83 reductions upon concentrations in European cities (Cuvelier et al., 2007), specifically Berlin, Milan,
84 Paris and Prague (Thunis et al., 2007). A subsequent study (Stern et al., 2008) examined the ability
85 of five chemical transport models to reproduce PM₁₀ episode conditions in central Europe. Model
86 specific studies, such as those with CHIMERE, have sought to simulate particulate matter
87 concentrations in specific parts of Europe, e.g. Portugal (Monteiro et al., 2007) and northern Italy
88 (de Meij et al., 2009). Air quality models used for calculating aerosol species over the UK include
89 the Community Multiscale Air Quality model (CMAQ) (Chemel et al., 2010) and the Hull Acid
90 Rain Model (HARM), (Metcalf et al., 2005). CMAQ over-predicted O₃ and under-predicted
91 aerosol species with the exception of sulphate (Chemel et al., 2010). The HARM and ELMO
92 models (Whyatt et al., 2007) underestimated sulphate, nitrate and ammonium by a large margin, and
93 chloride massively. In the work of Redington and Derwent (2002), the NAME model slightly

94 under-predicted measured sulphate values (average negative bias across three sites was $0.33 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)
95 although the annual average values of nitrate compared well.

96
97 This paper is concerned with the application of a Lagrangian trajectory model to provide the results
98 of multiple abatement scenarios upon concentrations of secondary organic aerosol.

100 **THE MODEL**

101 The numerical model used in this work is a heavily modified version of the UK Photochemical
102 Trajectory Model (PTM). The PTM has been widely used by Derwent and his collaborators,
103 especially in relation to the modelling of ozone (Derwent et al., 1996; Derwent et al., 2003;
104 Walker et al., 2009; Baker, 2010) and of secondary organic aerosol (Johnson et al., 2006; Derwent
105 et al., 2009; Abdalmogith et al., 2006). For its application to secondary inorganic aerosol, the
106 model has been modified in our group in a number of important aspects. These are described in
107 detail by Beddows et al. (2012) and may be summarised as follows:

- 108 • Enhancements to better describe the boundary layer meteorological processes affecting
109 pollutant concentrations. In particular, data for temperature, relative humidity and mixing
110 depths are derived from the HYSPLIT model and insolation is now a function of Julian Day
111 and subject to attenuation by cloud.
- 112 • A more sophisticated treatment of in-cloud oxidation of sulphur dioxide has been
113 incorporated.
- 114 • Concentrations of sea salt aerosol are estimated from the parameterisation of Gong et al.
115 (2008) and used as inputs to both chloride and sodium for the aerosol thermodynamic model.
- 116 • The partition of reactive gases such as ammonia and nitric acid between vapour and the
117 condensed phase is now described through the thermodynamic model, ISORROPIA II which
118 describes the equilibrium processes within an internally mixed aerosol as a function of
119 temperature and relative humidity (Fountoukis and Nenes, 2007).

120 The model set-up involves the calculation of mean concentrations resulting from back trajectories
121 over a period in 2007, terminating at the Harwell site in southern England. The model has been
122 extensively validated against measured data from Harwell and its performance tested against
123 standard metrics with satisfactory outcomes (Beddows et al., 2012). Concentrations correspond to
124 the PM₁₀ size range.

125

126 Recent decades have seen substantial reductions in the emissions of SO₂ and NO_x (Vestreng et al.,
127 2007; AQEG, 2007) and the range of reductions in emissions modelled allows for a further
128 reduction of 50% in these gases. Reductions in NH₃ are less certain, and it has been predicted that in
129 certain areas (e.g. United States; Pye et al., 2009), there may be future increases in NH₃ emissions.
130 For this reason a wider range including both increases and reductions from the baseline was chosen
131 for the modelled NH₃ emissions than for the modelled NO_x and SO₂ emissions.

132

133 **METHOD**

134 The Photochemical Trajectory Model (PTM) was run over the period 19 March 2007 to 19 May
135 2007 with various assumed emissions of oxides of nitrogen (NO_x), sulphur dioxide (SO₂) and
136 ammonia (NH₃), to predict inorganic particulate matter concentrations at Harwell. This is the same
137 period over which model validation was conducted (Beddows et al., 2012). Emission values were
138 taken from the NAEI on a 10 x 10 km grid for the United Kingdom (UK), and from EMEP on a 50
139 x 50 km grid for the rest of Europe (EU) as described in Beddows et al. (2012), with changes in
140 emissions modelled for these areas both separately and together. Emissions from shipping in local
141 seas were abated in both the UK-only and EU-only scenarios. The variation of emissions was
142 considered over the range of 100% to 40% for NO_x 100% to 50% for SO₂, and 120% to 70% for
143 NH₃, in 10% steps, where 100% is the baseline (2007) rate of emission.

144

145 The 2976 half-hourly calculated concentrations predicted by the PTM for each emission scenario
146 were used to calculate the mean concentration, over the two month period, of particulate nitrate,
147 ammonium, sulphate and chloride. Chloride, although largely primary is affected by the processes
148 determining concentrations of secondary sulphate and nitrate and was therefore included. The mean
149 concentrations of the precursor gases HNO_3 and HCl were also calculated.

150

151 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

152 For the purpose of this study, variations were made to the emissions of three precursor pollutants,
153 i.e. ammonia, NO_x and sulphur dioxide. The model was then used to compute the resultant
154 concentrations of ammonium, nitrate, sulphate and chloride (and coincidentally nitric acid and
155 hydrochloric acid vapours) and the sum of the four particulate components, which for the purpose
156 of this report is described as secondary inorganic aerosol (SIA).

157

$$SIA = \sum SO_4^{2-} + NO_3^- + Cl^- + NH_4^+$$

158

159 Figure 1 shows an example of the effect of abatement policies applied uniformly across the UK and
160 the remainder of Europe. In the three-dimensional plot, one pollutant has been held constant; in
161 this case ammonia emissions have been held constant at 100% of their 2007 value. The plot then
162 shows the concentrations of the species indicated resulting from levels of sulphur dioxide emission
163 between 50% and 100% of 2007 emissions and of abatement of NO_x such that emissions are
164 between 40% and 100% of those in 2007. In Figure 1, it may be seen that nitrate concentrations, as
165 expected, fall with the abatement of NO_x emissions, but that the fall is reduced by the abatement of
166 sulphur dioxide. This confirms that the model is reflecting the atmospheric chemistry well. The
167 reason for this effect is that the abatement of sulphur dioxide reduces the formation of sulphate (as
168 seen in the graph for sulphate), which in turn reduces the irreversible uptake of ammonia into
169 ammonium sulphate. This in turn implies that more ammonia remains in unneutralised form in the

170 atmosphere which then contributes to additional formation of nitrate by reaction with nitric acid.
171 Abatement of sulphur dioxide and NO_x appears to contribute monotonically to a reduction in
172 ammonium in the aerosol, but also leads to modestly increasing concentrations of chloride in the
173 particles. This is a consequence of diminished scavenging of ammonia by sulphuric acid which is
174 then free to react with hydrogen chloride, leading to a reduction in this species, seen in Figure 1,
175 and an increase in particulate chloride. The overall effect of abatement of NO_x to 40% and SO₂ to
176 50% of 2007 emissions at constant ammonia emissions is a reduction of secondary inorganic
177 aerosol to around 11 µg m⁻³ from an initial concentration slightly in excess of 15 µg m⁻³. Figure S1
178 (Supplementary Information) shows the effect of reductions of emissions within the UK only.
179 Taking the 100% ammonia scenario, secondary inorganic aerosol concentrations are reduced by a
180 smaller margin from a little over 15 µg m⁻³ to around 12 µg m⁻³. In Figure S2, the projections of
181 emissions reduction for the European mainland, excluding the UK, show for a 100% ammonia
182 scenario (i.e. 2007 emission levels for ammonia), a maximum reduction of secondary inorganic
183 aerosol to around 13 µg m⁻³ from 15 µg m⁻³.

184

185 Comparative charts of the concentrations of SIA, nitrate, ammonium, sulphate and chloride when
186 emissions of NO_x, SO₂ and NH₃ from UK, EU and both areas together are separately reduced, while
187 the other emissions are held at 2007 values (100%), are presented in Figures S3 to S7
188 (Supplementary Information) respectively. When NO_x or SO₂ emissions are reduced, the reduction
189 of emissions from the United Kingdom (UK) has a greater effect on concentrations of sulphate,
190 nitrate and chloride than the reduction of emissions from the rest of Europe (EU). In the case of
191 ammonium, both appear equally effective. These results appear in tabulated form in Tables S1-3
192 (in Supplementary Information).

193

194 Figure S4 shows a considerable beneficial effect of NO_x abatement upon nitrate concentrations
195 especially if that reduction is across both the UK and mainland Europe. However, the benefits are

196 far less than proportionate. Figure S4 also confirms an increase in nitrate with the abatement of
197 sulphur dioxide as mooted in the earlier text. On the other hand, abatement of ammonia emissions
198 has a decidedly beneficial effect upon nitrate concentrations. The effects of abatement policies for
199 sulphur dioxide, NO_x and ammonia are all beneficial in reducing ammonium concentrations with
200 the greatest benefits coming from reductions across the whole of Europe, including the UK.
201 Reducing ammonia emissions appears to be the most effective measure when comparing the 100%
202 to 70% scenarios, which is consistent with the results of Megaritis et al. (2012). Figure S7 shows
203 that effects on chloride concentrations of reductions in NO_x, SO₂ and ammonia are relatively
204 modest but not zero. When these changes are summed as secondary inorganic aerosol (Figure S3),
205 it is seen that even quite major reductions in emissions of precursor compounds have only a relative
206 modest effect upon the concentration of secondary inorganic aerosol.

207

208 The general trends in concentration with respect to NO_x and SO₂ emissions are consistent across all
209 NH₃ emission levels, and all geographic areas for which emissions were varied. SIA, ammonium
210 and HNO₃ concentrations reduce with reductions in both NO_x and SO₂ emissions. Nitrate falls with
211 reducing NO_x emissions but rises with cuts in SO₂ emissions (Figure S4). Sulphate falls with
212 reducing SO₂ and ammonia emissions but is largely unaffected by reduced NO_x emission (Figure
213 S6). Chloride increases slightly with reductions in SO₂ and NO_x emissions (Figure S7). According
214 to Figure S3, SIA is relatively insensitive to reductions in a single precursor. A much greater
215 reduction in SIA is seen when all three precursors are reduced by the maximum amount.

216

217 **Secondary Pollutant – Precursor Relationships**

218 These appear in Figures 2 to 4. Figure 2 shows the relationship of atmospheric concentrations of
219 sulphate to sulphur dioxide which portrays the non-linearity widely believed to affect this
220 relationship, and which was inferred from measured atmospheric concentrations by Jones and
221 Harrison (2011). This graph also demonstrates the relative ineffectiveness for UK sulphate

222 concentrations of reducing only emissions in mainland Europe, but also that the reduction across
223 both the UK and mainland Europe is more effective than reductions in the UK alone. Figure 3
224 shows the corresponding relationship between nitrate and emissions of NO_x . This portrays a
225 broadly similar pattern of behaviour but the apparent intercept in nitrate at zero NO_x derived from
226 curve fitting seems implausible and there must be a steepening relationship as NO_x is reduced
227 further. The relative shallowness of this curve over the abatement range tested appears consistent
228 with the fact that nitrate concentrations in UK air appear relatively insensitive to NO_x emission
229 reductions in recent years. For example, data from UK rural sites showed a marked decline in NO_2
230 between 1987 and 2007, but no trend in particulate nitrate between 1999 and 2007 (AEA, 2008). It
231 also shows clearly the relative importance of UK emissions in influencing NO_x far more than nitrate
232 concentrations which are quite strongly influenced by European mainland emissions. Figure 4
233 shows the corresponding relationship between ammonium and ammonia emissions. This also
234 shows a non-linearity but a significant beneficial impact of emissions reductions. Figures 5 and S8
235 show the impacts of sulphur dioxide abatement upon nitrate and ammonium respectively. Figure 5
236 shows clearly that nitrate has a tendency to increase as sulphur dioxide is reduced as indicated in the
237 discussion above. On the other hand, reductions in sulphur dioxide emissions have clear benefits in
238 reducing ammonium concentrations (Figure S8) as do reductions in NO_x in reducing ammonium
239 (Figure S9). Figure 6 shows that reductions of NO_x lead to increases in sulphate. The effect is
240 relatively small but it is most marked for reductions in mainland Europe. This is presumably an
241 effect of lesser competition for oxidising agents with a reduction in concentrations of NO_x leading
242 to enhanced oxidation of sulphur dioxide. Substantial benefits arise from the abatement of
243 ammonia. This is seen in respect of sulphate concentrations in Figure 7 and of nitrate concentrations
244 in Figure S10, both of which benefit significantly from ammonia abatement, as do concentrations of
245 ammonium (Figure 4).

246

247

248 **Comparison with the Work of Derwent et al. (2009)**

249 The paper by Derwent et al. (2009) is the only broadly similar study with which to compare our
250 results. It is also based upon a moving air parcel trajectory model but averages over each day of
251 2006 at Harwell, Oxfordshire, rather than focussing on a more limited time period with a minor
252 pollution episode as in this study. In comparison to this study, it investigates a more limited range
253 of abatement scenarios and presents results relating only to 30% reductions in emissions of
254 individual pollutants rather than the mixed abatement cases run in our study. The model of
255 Derwent et al. (2009) uses a “kinetic” approach to simulating formation of aerosol constituents
256 whereas this work uses kinetics to determine the formation of oxidised products and
257 thermodynamics to simulate their incorporation into particles. One difficulty with the
258 thermodynamic approach is selecting an appropriate temperature/humidity condition at which to
259 simulate the particle-vapour equilibria, which can be very sensitive to these variables. Another
260 issue for nitrate is the presence of artefacts (generally negative) in the measurements, which will
261 affect both modelling approaches. Nonetheless, both models perform well in simulating the
262 magnitude of current nitrate concentrations (Beddows et al., 2012; Derwent et al., 2009). Table S4
263 (Supplementary Information) shows the concentrations predicted by the Derwent et al. (2009)
264 model in comparison to those in the current study and Table 1 shows percentage reductions in each
265 case from the base case for the 30% reduction scenarios presented by Derwent and co-workers.

266

267 In the case of sulphur dioxide abatement, it may be seen from Table 1 that the general pattern of
268 behaviour is the same, and within each model a sulphate reduction arising from sulphur dioxide
269 abatement in the UK only and rest of Europe cases and a substantially greater abatement resulting
270 from reductions across the board. The main difference is that Derwent et al. (2009) predicted a
271 70% sulphate concentration from across the board abatement, whereas in the current work, the
272 predicted reduction in sulphate is to a level of 78%. The current work predicts 89% for both the UK
273 only and rest of Europe reductions whereas Derwent et al. (2009) predicted 85%. Once again, a

274 broadly similar pattern of outcomes is seen for abatement of NO_x with greater reductions shown by
275 Derwent et al. (2009) (an 80% nitrate level as compared to 87% in our model), with a greater effect
276 of abatement in the rest of Europe (88% nitrate) in the Derwent et al. (2009) model compared to the
277 UK only case (92% nitrate), comparing with 94% nitrate in both scenarios in our model. In
278 common with our model, the Derwent et al. (2009) model shows an increase in nitrate with sulphur
279 dioxide abatement, although the effect is less in the Derwent et al. (2009) model for across the
280 board abatement but greater for rest of Europe abatement than in our model. In the case of
281 ammonia abatement, Derwent et al. (2009) show a reduction in ammonium to 79% in the across the
282 board case as opposed to 83% in our model. Both models show 90% ammonium in the UK only
283 case and Derwent et al. (2009) show 89% ammonium in the Europe-only case, whereas in our
284 model it is 94%. Both models show ammonia abatement to be beneficial for all measured species.
285 Given the differences both in model formulation, and the scenarios run (annual means versus a two
286 month episode in different years), the agreement is suprisingly close.

287

288 **Predictions for the European 2020 Scenario**

289 AQEG (2012) gives projections of UK precursor emissions in 2020, together with emission for
290 2005 and 2010 in respect of the EU-27 and shipping in European waters. Baseline EU-27 and
291 shipping emissions were estimated by averaging the 2005 and 2010 emissions in the AQEG report.
292 The 2020 emissions (sum of EU-27 and shipping) were estimated as a percentage of baseline as
293 SO₂, 64%; NO_x, 75% and NH₃, 96%.

294

295 The results of this scenario appear in Table 2, which shows the all of Europe, mainland only and
296 UK-only reduction. It shows 2020 concentrations of SIA of 2.0 µg m⁻³ below the baseline case, a
297 reduction of 13%, due mostly to a fall in sulphate and ammonium. The mean PM₁₀ concentration
298 measured at Harwell over the period 19/3/2007 to 19/5/2007 was 28.2 µg m⁻³, while that over the
299 full year of 2007 was 21.5 µg m⁻³. Mean concentrations of chloride, nitrate and sulphate over the 2-

month period modelled were 1.18, 6.64 and 3.89 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, somewhat higher than that for the full year of 1.38, 3.06 and 2.40 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ respectively. Thus nitrate and sulphate were 46% and 62% respectively over the full year relative to the modelled period. Consequently, an overall reduction of about 1 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in PM_{10} might be anticipated over the full year as a result of the estimated 2020 emissions reductions relative to 2007.

CONCLUSIONS

These results demonstrate that the enhanced PTM is an effective way of investigating complex emission reduction scenarios. The results give a clear view of pollutant interactions and show reductions in some cases, and in others increases in concentrations that are qualitatively the same as Derwent et al. (2009) and quantitatively relatively similar. The differences are probably explained to a large degree by the lower concentrations in the base case in the Derwent et al. (2009) model and the non-linearities accounting for greater percentage reductions in that situation. However, the great benefit of the current work is that it investigates a much wider range of scenarios than those studied by Derwent et al. (2009), therefore allowing an assessment of likely future concentrations over a very wide range of plausible mitigation policies and scenarios. It also gives predictions for specific scenarios, such as that for 2020.

In the 2020 scenario, despite substantial reductions in both NO_x and SO_2 (by 25% and 36% respectively), the reduction in SIA is almost wholly due to a fall in the sulphate concentration. Nitrate, which already exceeds sulphate in the southern UK, and becomes dominant under episodic conditions (Yin and Harrison, 2008), responds little to the reduction in NO_x , reflecting the low sensitivity of nitrate to NO_x emission reductions seen in Figure S9 and the effect of decreasing SO_2 emissions in increasing nitrate (Figure 5). This is reflected in the very small changes in nitrate in the UK in recent years, despite substantial reduction in NO_x emissions.

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329

330

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Derwent et al., 2009	mean 15.00z values, 2006				Current work	19 March – 19 May 2007			
With respect to base case values	Sulphate	Nitrate	Ammonium	PM _{2.5}	With respect to no emission reduction	sulphate	nitrate	ammonium	SIA
Across the board cases					Reductions in all of Europe				
30% SO ₂ case	70%	105%	94%	93%	30% reduction in SO ₂	78%	108%	87%	94%
30% NO _x case	105%	80%	92%	96%	30% reduction in NO _x	101%	87%	94%	95%
30% NH ₃ case	100%	83%	79%	92%	30% reduction in NH ₃	97%	86%	83%	91%
UK-only cases					Reductions in UK only				
30% SO ₂ case	85%	101%	99%	97%	30% reduction in SO ₂	89%	104%	94%	97%
30% NO _x case	103%	92%	97%	99%	30% reduction in NO _x	100%	94%	98%	97%
30% NH ₃ case	100%	92%	90%	96%	30% reduction in NH ₃	97%	92%	90%	94%
Rest of Europe-only cases					Reductions in rest of Europe only				
30% SO ₂ case	85%	115%	96%	97%	30% reduction in SO ₂	89%	104%	93%	97%
30% NO _x case	101%	88%	94%	97%	30% reduction in NO _x	101%	94%	97%	98%
30% NH ₃ case	100%	91%	89%	96%	30% reduction in NH ₃	100%	94%	94%	97%

Table 1: Comparison of Derwent et al. (2009) and present work – proportionate reductions

Species	No abatement	All area reductions		Mainland only reductions		UK only reduction	
	SO ₂ = 100% NO _x = 100% NH ₃ = 100%	SO ₂ = 64% NO _x = 75% NH ₃ = 96%		SO ₂ = 64% NO _x = 75% NH ₃ = 96%		SO ₂ = 64% NO _x = 75% NH ₃ = 96%	
	concentration	concentration	difference	concentration	difference	concentration	difference
Chloride	1.53	1.58	-0.05	1.56	-0.03	1.54	-0.01
Nitrate	5.98	5.85	0.13	5.97	0.01	5.93	0.05
Ammonium	1.80	1.40	0.41	1.61	0.20	1.62	0.19
Sulphate	5.75	4.24	1.50	5.04	0.70	4.96	0.79
SIA	15.06	13.07	1.99	14.18	0.88	14.04	1.02

Table 2: Estimated concentrations ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) resulting from an assumed 2020 scenario (SO₂, 64%; NO_x, 75%; NH₃, 96%)

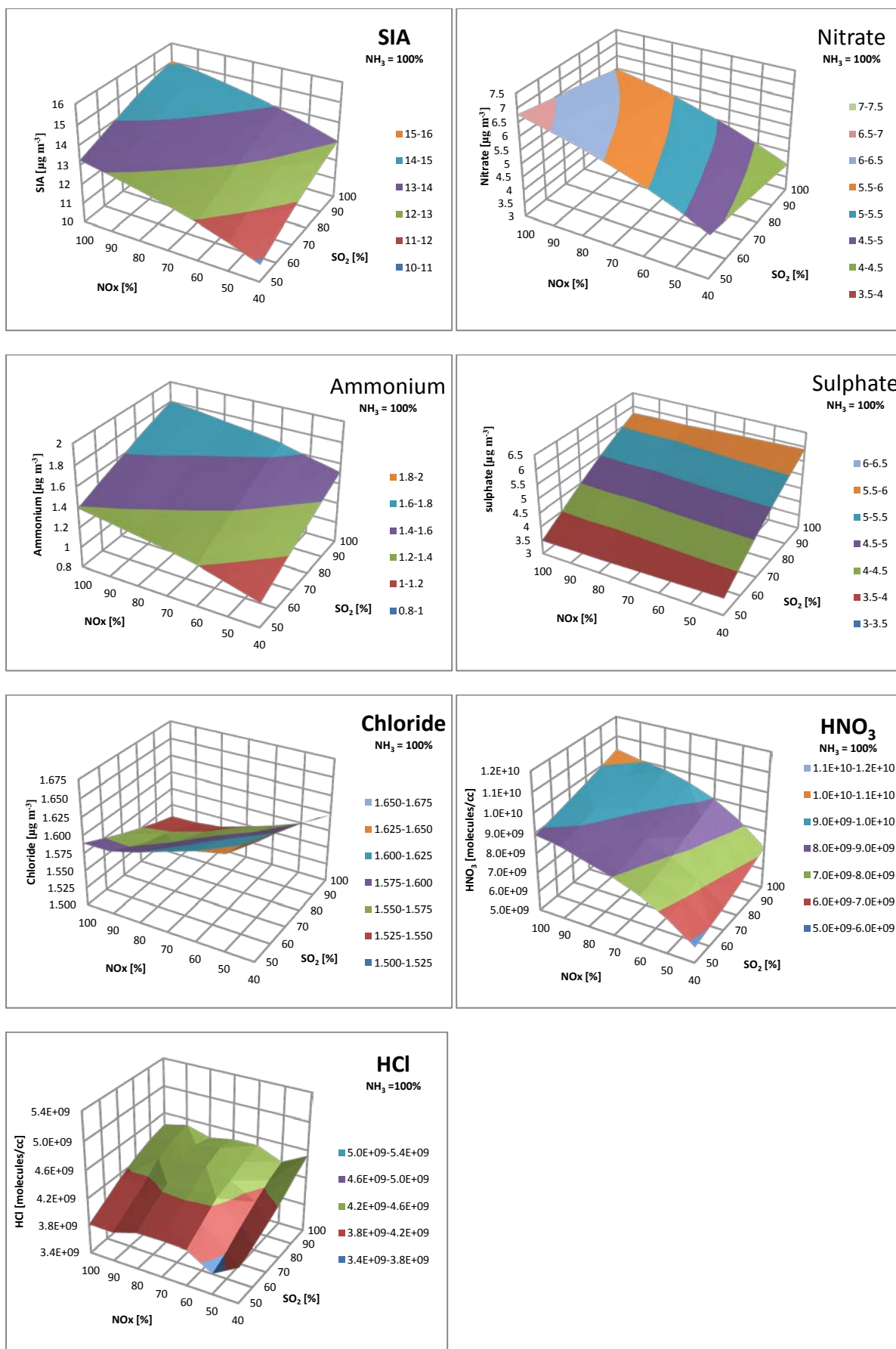


Figure 1: Effect of emission reductions in UK and Europe, for NH₃ = 100%

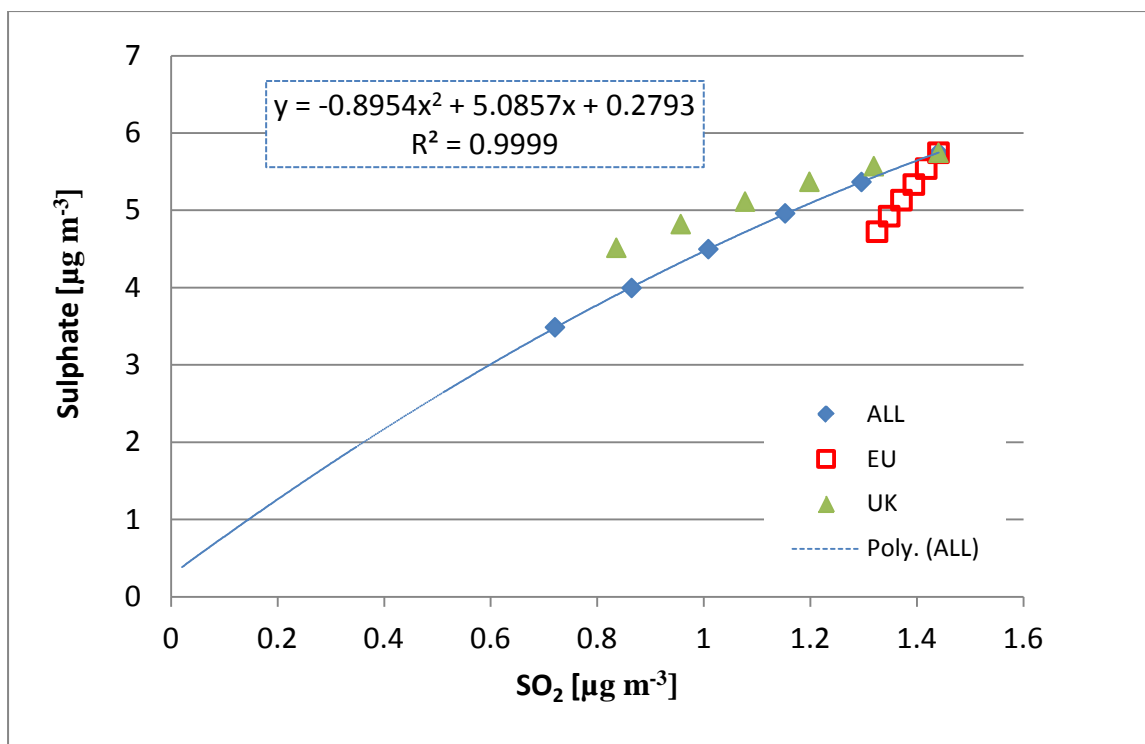


Figure 2: Predicted sulphate as a function of SO_2 at Harwell (SO_2 emissions varied in UK and Europe)

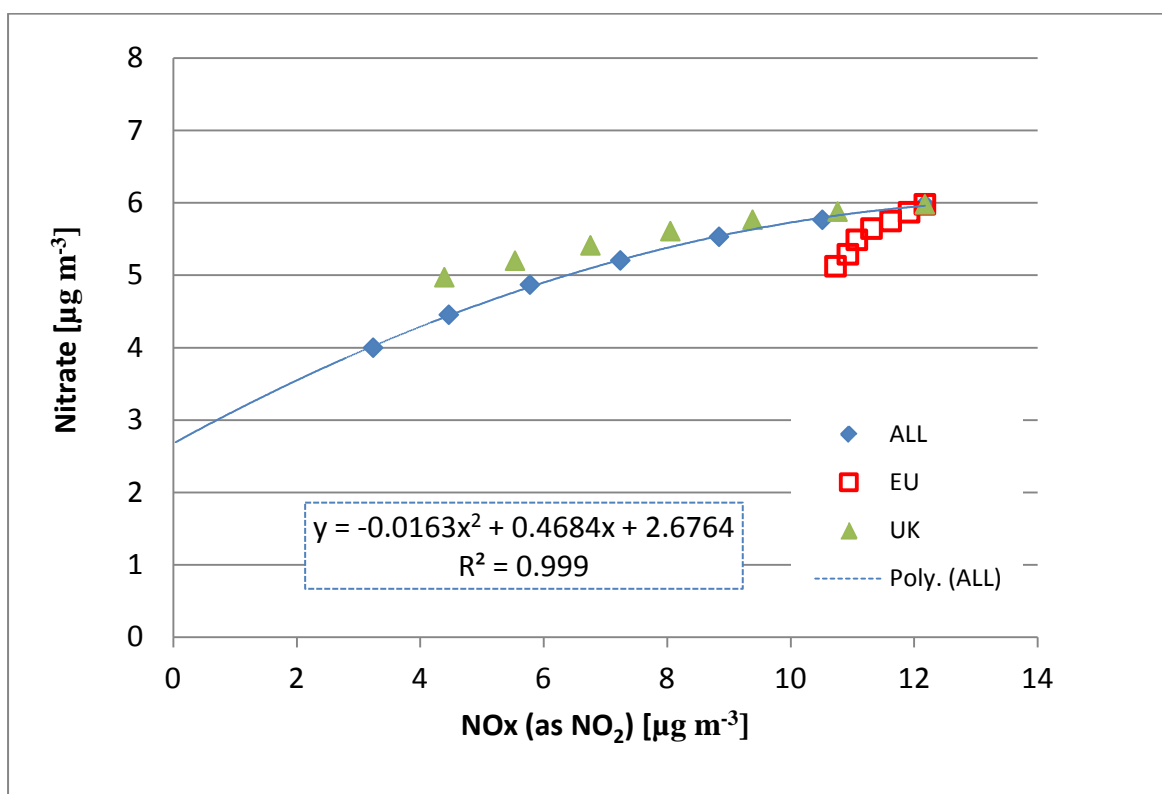


Figure 3: Predicted nitrate as a function of NO_x (as NO_2) at Harwell (NO_x emissions varied in UK and Europe)

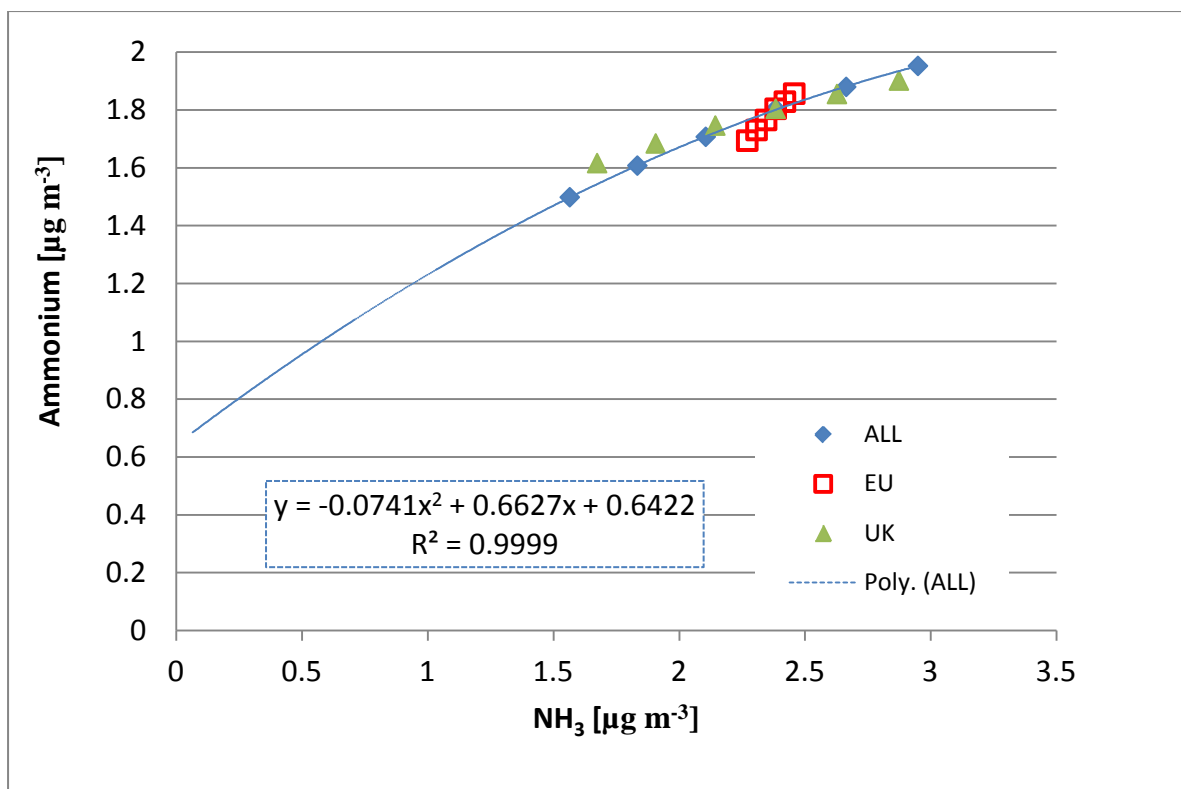


Figure 4: Predicted ammonium as a function of NH_3 at Harwell (NH_3 emissions varied in UK and Europe)

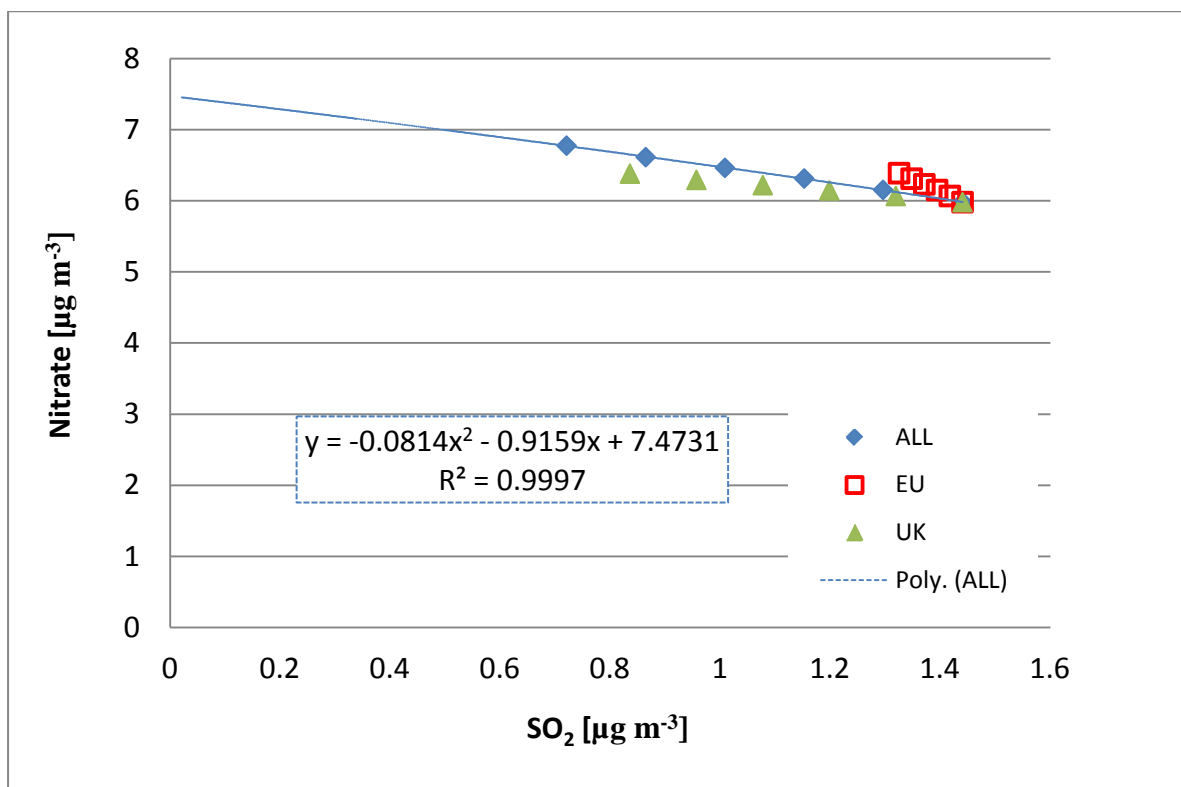


Figure 5: Predicted nitrate as a function of SO_2 at Harwell (SO_2 emissions varied in UK and Europe)

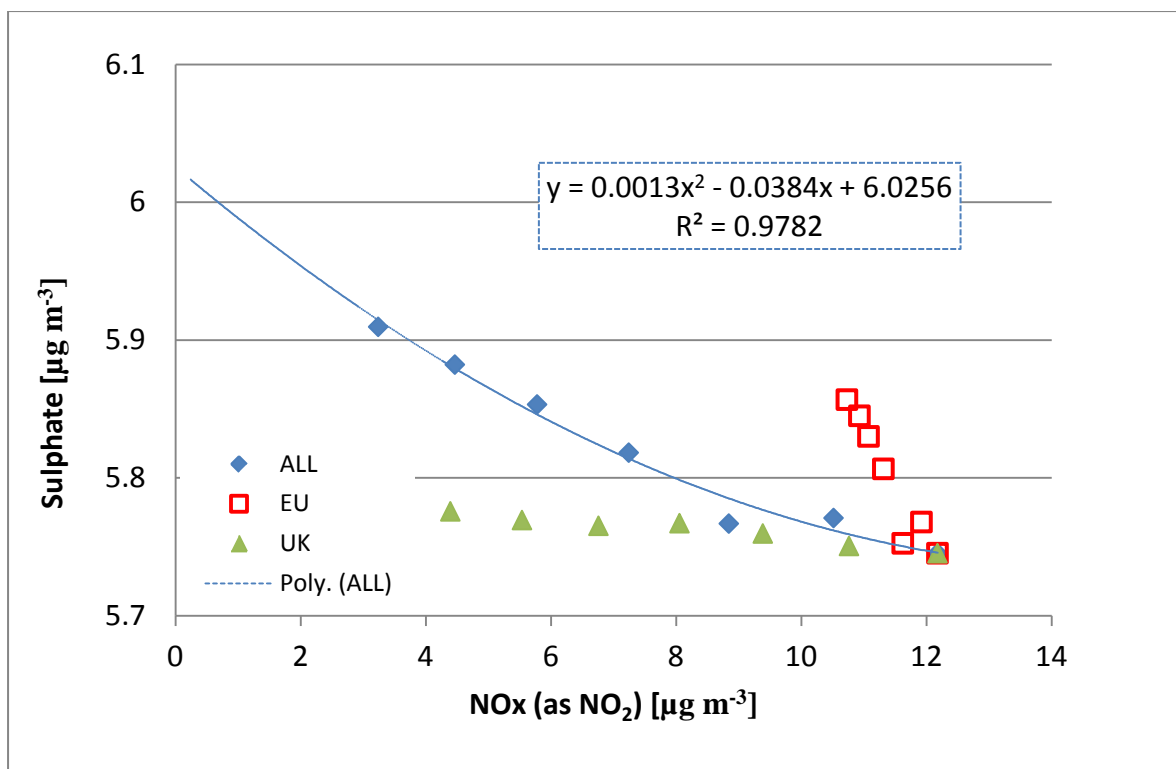


Figure 6: Predicted sulphate as a function of NO_x (as NO_2) at Harwell (NO_x emissions varied in UK and Europe)

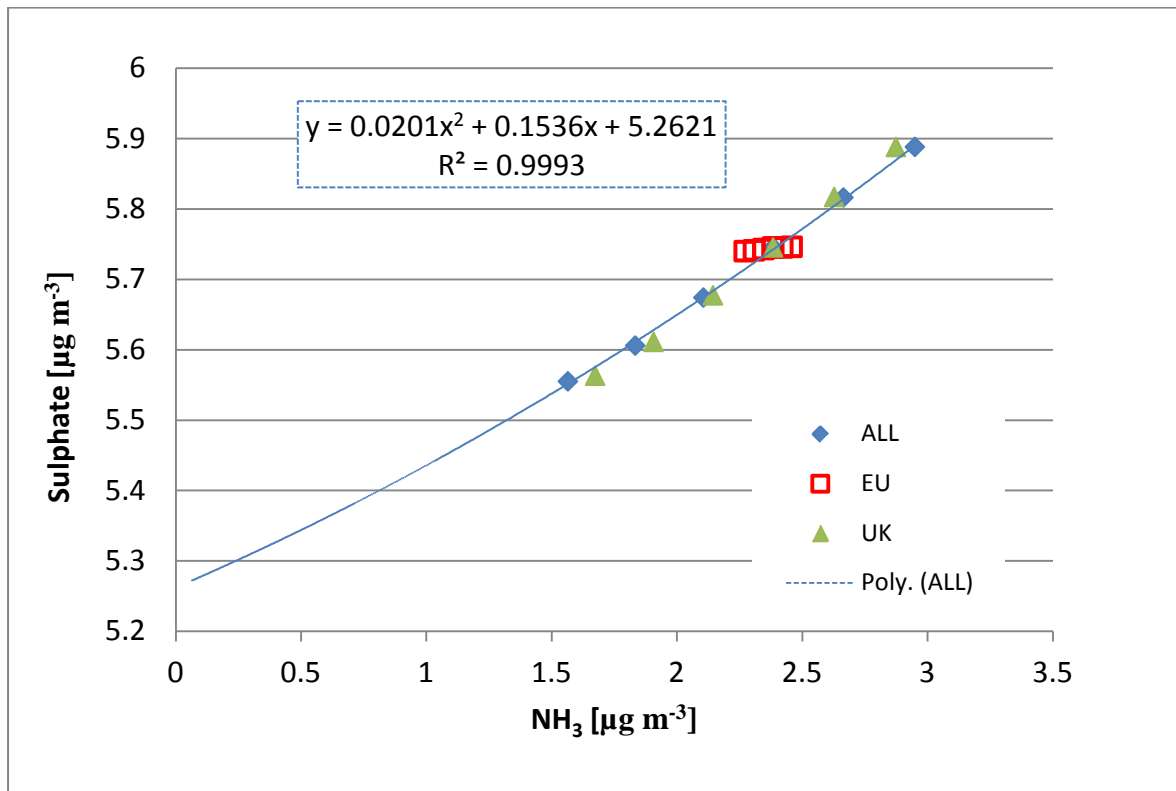


Figure 7: Predicted sulphate as a function of NH_3 at Harwell (NH_3 emissions varied in UK and Europe)